

## Optimized Methods for the Surface Immobilization of Collagens and Collagen Binding Assays

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### ► To cite this version:

Nadia Chaher, Giuseppe Digilio, Sara Lacerda, René Botnar, Alkystis Phinikaridou. Optimized Methods for the Surface Immobilization of Collagens and Collagen Binding Assays. Journal of visualized experiments: JoVE, 2023, 193, 10.3791/64720. hal-04124237

## HAL Id: hal-04124237 https://hal.science/hal-04124237

Submitted on 24 Oct 2023

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#### 1 **TITLE:**

2 Optimized Methods for the Surface Immobilization of Collagens and Collagen Binding Assays 3

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### 30 SUMMARY:

This work presents an optimized protocol to reproducibly immobilize and quantify type I and III collagen onto microplates, followed by an improved *in vitro* binding assay protocol to study collagen–compound interactions using a time-resolved fluorescence method. The

34 subsequent step-by-step data analysis and data interpretation are provided.

### 36 **ABSTRACT:**

37 Fibrosis occurs in various tissues as a reparative response to injury or damage. If excessive, 38 however, fibrosis can lead to tissue scarring and organ failure, which is associated with high 39 morbidity and mortality. Collagen is a key driver of fibrosis, with type I and type III collagen 40 being the primary types involved in many fibrotic diseases. Unlike conventional protocols used to immobilize other proteins (e.g., elastin, albumin, fibronectin, etc.), comprehensive 41 42 protocols to reproducibly immobilize different types of collagens to produce stable coatings are not readily available. Immobilizing collagen is surprisingly challenging because multiple 43 experimental conditions may affect the efficiency of immobilization, including the type of 44 45 collagen, the pH, the temperature, and the type of microplate used. Here, a detailed 46 protocol to reproducibly immobilize and quantify type I and III collagens to create stable and 47 reproducible gels/films is provided. Furthermore, this work demonstrates how to perform, 48 analyze, and interpret *in vitro* time-resolved fluorescence binding studies to investigate the 49 interactions between collagens and candidate collagen-binding compounds (e.g., a peptide 50 conjugated to a metal chelate carrying, for example, europium [Eu(III)]). Such an approach 51 can be universally applied to various biomedical applications, such as in the field of 52 molecular imaging to develop targeted imaging probes, drug development, cell toxicity 53 studies, cell proliferation studies, and immunoassays.

54

#### 55 **INTRODUCTION:**

56 The accumulation of fibrous connective tissue as part of the natural wound-healing process following tissue injury is known as fibrosis. However, if the deposition of fibrous tissue fails 57 to terminate and continues beyond what is needed for tissue repair, then fibrosis becomes 58 excessive<sup>1,2</sup>. Excessive fibrosis impairs organ physiology and function and could lead to 59 organ damage and potentially organ failure $^{3-5}$ . Two main drivers of fibrosis are the 60 extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins collagen type I and type III<sup>6</sup>. Collagen is a structural 61 protein found in various organs that makes up approximately one-third of the total protein 62 content of the human body<sup>1</sup>. There are 28 different types of collagens identified by human 63 genome sequencing, and the most abundant are the fibrillar collagens<sup>7</sup>. The primary 64 fibrillary collagen is type I collagen, which provides the ECM with tensile strength and 65 resistance to deformation<sup>8</sup>. Type III collagen is a structural component that provides 66 elasticity and colocalizes with type I collagen. It is expressed during embryogenesis and is 67 naturally found in small amounts in adult skin, muscle, and blood vessels<sup>9</sup>. 68

69

70 In vivo collagen synthesis begins with an intracellular process in which mRNA is transcribed in the nucleus and then moves to the cytoplasm, where is it translated. After translation, the 71 72 chain formed undergoes post-translational modification in the endoplasmic reticulum, 73 where pro-collagen (the precursor of collagen) is formed. The pro-collagen then travels to the Golgi apparatus for final modification before being excreted to the extracellular space<sup>10</sup>. 74 75 Through proteolytic cleavage, the procollagen is transformed into tropocollagen. This is then cross-linked either via an enzymatic-mediated cross-linking pathway catalyzed by the 76 77 enzyme lysyl oxidase (LOX) or via a non-enzymatic-mediated cross-linking pathway involving the Maillard reaction<sup>11</sup>. However, *in vitro* protocols to immobilize collagen mainly rely on 78 the ability of collagen to self-assemble. Collagen is extracted from tissues based on its 79 80 solubility, which largely depends on the extent of cross-linking of individual collagen fibrils<sup>7</sup>. 81 Fibrillar collagen is dissolved in acetic acid, and fibrils can reform when the pH and temperature are adjusted<sup>12</sup>. In vitro, the fibrillogenesis of collagen can be viewed as a two-82 stage process<sup>7</sup>. The first stage is the nucleation phase, where collagen fibers form dimers 83 and trimer fibrils before they are rearranged to form a triple helical structure. The second 84 phase is the growth phase, whereby the fibrils start to grow laterally and result in the 85 characteristic D-band formation, which is generally observed by changes in turbidity'. 86 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) studies have also revealed that type I and type III collagen 87 have different characteristics (Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.)<sup>13</sup>. 88

89

To study the binding interactions between collagen and other compounds, collagen needs to be reproducibly immobilized into the wells of microplates. There are various protocols for immobilizing soluble collagen<sup>14–16</sup>. Commercially available microplates that are pre-coated with collagen are typically used for cell culture. However, pre-coated microplates have a very thin layer of an unknown amount of collagen coated onto the wells, which makes them

95 unsuitable for *in vitro* binding assays. There are several challenges when immobilizing collagen onto the plate wells. One of the key challenges is choosing a suitable type of 96 97 microplate, because different types of collagens (e.g., type I and III) have different chemical 98 properties and, therefore, immobilize more stably and effectively depending on the material of the microplate. Another challenge is the experimental conditions of the immobilization 99 100 protocol, as the process of fibrillogenesis depends on multiple factors, including temperature, pH, the stock concentration of collagen, and the ionic concentration of the 101 buffer<sup>7</sup>. 102

103

For studying the interactions between the collagen (the target) and other compounds (i.e., a 104 targeting peptide), it is also necessary to develop a robust screening assay to investigate the 105 specificity and selectivity of the compound toward the target by measuring the dissociation 106 constant, K<sub>d</sub>. The position of the equilibrium of formation of a bimolecular complex between 107 108 a protein (collagen) and a ligand is expressed in terms of the association constant K<sub>a</sub>, whose 109 magnitude is proportional to the binding affinity. However, most commonly, biochemists 110 express affinity relationships in terms of the equilibrium dissociation constant, K<sub>d</sub>, of the binary complex, which is defined as  $K_d = 1/K_a \cdot K_d$  and is the inverse of  $K_a$ ; the lower the  $K_d$ 111 value, the stronger the binding strength between the protein and the ligand. The advantage 112 of using K<sub>d</sub> to compare the binding affinity of different ligands for the same protein (and the 113 other way around) is linked to the fact that the units of K<sub>d</sub> for a bimolecular complex are 114 mol/L (i.e., concentration units). Under most experimental conditions, the K<sub>d</sub> value 115 corresponds to the ligand concentration that leads to 50% saturation of the available 116 binding sites on the target at the equilibrium<sup>17,18</sup>. The dissociation constant is typically 117 extracted by analyzing the receptor fractional occupancy (FO), which is defined as the ratio 118 119 between the occupied binding sites and total available binding sites, as a function of ligand concentration. This can be done provided that an analytical assay able to distinguish and 120 121 measure the amount of bound ligand is available.

122

In vitro ligand binding assays can be performed using various bioanalytical methods, 123 including optical photometry, radioligand methods, inductively coupled plasma mass 124 spectrometry (ICP-MS), and surface plasmon resonance (SPR). Amongst the photometric 125 methods, those based on fluorescence emission typically require the labeling of ligands or 126 127 proteins with fluorophores to increase the sensitivity and to improve the detection limit of 128 the assay. Chelates of certain lanthanides(III) ions, such as Eu(III), are very attractive as fluorophores as they have large Stokes' shifts, narrow emission bands (providing a good 129 130 signal-to-noise ratio), limited photobleaching, and long emission lifetimes. Importantly, the latter property enables the use of time-resolved fluorescence (TRF) from Eu(III) fluorophores 131 to abolish background autofluorescence<sup>19</sup>. In the dissociation-enhanced lanthanide 132 fluorescent immunoassay (DELFIA) version of the Eu(III)-based TRF assay, ligands labeled 133 with a non-luminescent Eu(III)-chelate are incubated with the receptor immobilized onto 134 microplates. The labeled ligand/receptor complex is separated from the unbound ligand, 135 and Eu(III) fluorescence is activated by dissociation of the Eu(III) complex at an acidic pH, 136 followed by re-complexation with a fluorescence-enhancing chelator to form a micelle-137 embedded, highly fluorescent Eu(III) complex<sup>20</sup>. 138

139

140 The decomplexation step can be reasonably achieved with chelators, such as 141 diethylenetriamine pentaacetate (DTPA), that show fast decomplexation kinetics. However,

Eu(III) complexes with certain macrocyclic chelators, such as DOTA (1,4,7,10-142 tetraazacyclododecane1,4,7,10-tetraacetic acid) and its monoamide derivatives (DO3AAm), 143 show high thermodynamic stability and very high kinetic inertness. In this case, the 144 decomplexation steps must be accurately optimized to achieve sufficient and reproducible 145 activation of Eu(III)-based TRF<sup>21</sup>. It is worth noting that lanthanide (Ln(III))-DOTA and Ln(III)-146 DO3AAm complexes are those most commonly employed as contrast agents for in vivo 147 molecular imaging by magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) techniques<sup>22</sup>. Thus, the Ln(III)-148 based TRF assay is the tool of choice to study in vitro the binding affinity of MRI molecular 149 150 probes with their intended biological targets. Currently, comprehensive and reproducible 151 protocols for immobilizing type I and type III collagen and a reproducible pipeline for 152 performing in vitro binding Eu(III) TRF experiments are lacking. To overcome these 153 limitations, reproducible methods to self-assemble and immobilize type I and type III 154 collagen and generate stable gels and films, respectively, with the sufficient concentration 155 of collagen required for in vitro binding assays, were developed. An optimized protocol for Eu(III) TRF of highly inert Eu(III)-DO3Aam-based complexes is presented. Finally, an 156 157 optimized in vitro microplate Eu(III) TRF assay to measure the K<sub>d</sub> of Eu(III)-labeled ligands toward immobilized type I and type III collagen is demonstrated (Figure 1). 158

#### 159 160 **PROTOCOL**:

161

NOTE: All product information used for this work is presented in the **Table of Materials**.

162

164

#### 163 1. **Collagen immobilization**

NOTE: Ensure each well in the microplate used during the binding assay has adjacent wells 165 free to avoid cross-fluorescence. Carry out this part of the protocol on ice because collagen 166 167 self-assembles at rising temperatures and pH levels. Perform this procedure in a tissue 168 culture hood and under sterile conditions because the microplates are subsequently incubated in a tissue culture (TC) incubator. 169

170

Immobilization of type I collagen on the 96-well microplates (Figure 2: Workflow to 171 1.1. 172 immobilize type I collagen)

- 173
- 174 Day 1

175

1.1.1. Prepare a silicone tray with ice. Place the vial containing type I collagen, the cold 10x 176 177 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and the microplates on ice, and spray everything with 70% ethanol. Place the material under the TC hood. 178

- 179
- 180 1.1.2. Neutralize the collagen using equal volumes of type I collagen and 10x PBS (pH 7.4).
- 181

- 182 1.1.3. Invert the solution a few times, ensuring that no bubbles form.
- 184 1.1.4. Add 100  $\mu$ L of the neutralized collagen to every other well of the microplate, and incubate at 37 °C for 18–20 h to evaporate the collagen to dryness. 185
- 186
- 187 Day 2 188

- 189 1.1.5. Wash the microplates with 100  $\mu$ L of 1x PBS, pH 7.4, twice to remove any unbound 190 collagen.
- 191
- 192 1.1.6. Transfer the microplates into the incubator at 37° C for another 2 h to dry before 193 using them for further binding experiments.
- 194
- 195 1.2. Immobilization of collagen type III on the 96-well microplates (



#### 196 1.3. 197 1.4. **Figure 3**)

198

### 199 Day 1

200

1.2.1. Prepare a silicone tray with ice. Place the vial containing type III collagen, the cold
10x PBS, and the microplates on ice, and spray everything with 70% ethanol. Place the
material under the TC hood.

204

1.2.2. Neutralize the collagen using equal volumes of type III collagen and 10x PBS (pH 7.4).

207 1.2.3. Add 70  $\mu$ L of the neutralized collagen to every other well of the microplate, and 208 incubate at 37 °C for 2 h by placing the microplate under the tissue culture hood to 209 evaporate the collagen to dryness.

- 210
- 211 Day 2
- 212

213 1.2.4. Wash the microplates with 70  $\mu$ L of 1x PBS, pH 7.4, twice to remove any unbound 214 collagen.

215

1.2.5. Transfer the microplates to the incubator for 1 h at 37 °C, and then transfer the
microplates to the bench, and allow them 1 h to dry before using them in further binding
experiments.

219							
220	2.	Assessment of the stability of the immobilized collagen gels/films					
221							
222	2.1.	Incubation with PBS for 1 h					
223							
224	NOTE:	During the binding experiment, incubate the immobilized collagen with the					
225	compo	compound of interest. It is important to investigate the stability of the resulting collagen gel					
226	or film	or film. To do this, measure the stability of three conditions: <b>no wash</b> = measures the					
227	immobilized collagen directly after incubation: <b>washing</b> = measures the immobilized						
228	collagen after washing the plate twice with 100 $\mu$ L of PBS: and <b>1 h PBS mimic &amp; wash</b> =						
229	measures the immobilized collagen acter incubating for 1 h with PBS followed by two						
230	rounds	of washes with PBS. Below, the PBS incubation method is explained.					
231							
232	2.1.1.	Add 70 $\mu$ L of PBS (1x) to each of the wells coated with collagen, and incubate the					
233	microp	late at room temperature for 1 h.					
234							
235	2.1.2.	Aspirate the excess liquid from each well using a pipette, and wash with PBS (1x)					
236	twice k	before carrying out the protein quantification assay described below.					
237							
238	2.2.	Quantification of the amount of immobilized collagen using a bicinchoninic acid					
239	assay (	BCA)					
240							
241	NOTE:	Use the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Table of Materials) following the					
242	manuf	acturer's instructions. Make respective collagen standards for this assay. The					
243	concer	itration range for collagen I is from 0–3,000 $\mu$ g/mL and for collagen III from 0–750					
244	μg/mL	. In total, make 11 standards per collagen.					
245	1 0,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,					
246	2.2.1.	Prepare the total volume of working reagent (WR) needed by following the					
247	manuf	acturer's instructions.					
248							
249	2.2.2.	Add 25 $\mu$ L of each of the collagen standard into the microplate wells (in duplicate).					
250	These	solutions are used to draw the standard curve.					
251							
252	2.2.3.	Add 200 µL of working reagent solution to each of the wells containing the standards					
253	and the	e wells coated with unknown concentrations of collagen.					
254							
255	2.2.4.	Place the microplate on a plate shaker for 30 s. Cover the microplates, and incubate					
256	at 37 °	C for 30 min.					
257							
258	2.2.5.	Remove the microplates, and allow to cool at room temperature. Measure the					
259	absorb	ance at 560 nm using a plate reader.					
260							
261	2.2.6.	Plot a calibration curve by plotting the $A_{560}$ (AU) versus the concentration (µg/mL) of					
262	the 11	standard solutions, and use the calibration curve to calculate the amount of collagen.					
263							
264	3.	Europium(III) TRF ligand binding assay (Figure 1)					
265							

NOTE: The compound used is a candidate collagen-binding peptide (CBP) labeled with a single Eu(III)-DO3AAm complex, referred to as Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP (



268 269 **Figure 4**).

- 270271 3.1. Incubation of the collagen-coated plates with the Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP compound272
- 273 3.1.1. Prepare solutions of the Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP compound with concentrations ranging 274 between 0.1–15  $\mu$ M (0.1  $\mu$ M, 0.5  $\mu$ M, 1  $\mu$ M, 3  $\mu$ M, 5  $\mu$ M, 7  $\mu$ M, 10  $\mu$ M, and 15  $\mu$ M) in 1x 275 PBS.

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3.1.2. Add 75 μL of each concentration of compound into the collagen-coated wells (Plate
A). Perform the experiment in triplicate to calculate the amount of compound that binds to
the collagen.

281 3.1.3. Use a second uncoated plate (Plate B), and add 75  $\mu$ L of each compound to the 282 empty wells to calculate the non-specific binding of the compound to the plate. Use 283 triplicates for each concentration.

284

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280

285 3.1.4. Incubate the microplates for 1 h at room temperature.

3.1.5. Using a pipette, aspirate and discard the excess solution from each well, and wash
the wells with 1x PBS twice to remove excess, unbound compound. Perform this step using
both the collagen-coated and uncoated microplates.

290

3.1.6. To a third uncoated plate (Plate C), add 10 μL of the same range of Eu(III)-DO3AAmCBP concentrations (in duplicate). Use the fluorescence reading from the Eu(III)-DO3AAmCBP in solution to make a calibration curve.

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- 295 NOTE: Do not wash or aspirate the solution from this plate.
- 297 3.2. Acid extraction of Europium(III) and time-resolved fluorescence (TRF) readings

NOTE: Please refer to the supplemental information about the preparation and calibration of the volumes of the acidic solution (AS) and the buffering solution (BS). The volumes of the AS and BS required to reproducibly achieve an optimal pH were 54  $\mu$ L and 46  $\mu$ L, respectively, in this work. Carry out the following operation on plate A, plate B, and plate C. 304 3.2.1. Add 54  $\mu$ L of acidic solution (AS) to each well, and place the plate in the incubator at 37 °C for 90 min, covering the microplates with foil to avoid evaporation. The temperature 305 and incubation time must be carefully controlled to achieve reproducible decomplexation. 306 307 3.2.2. Add 46  $\mu$ L of buffering solution (BS) to each well, and gently shake the plate for 30 s. 308 309 310 3.2.3. Add 100  $\mu$ L of enhancement solution (ES), and shake the plate for 30 s. 311 3.2.4. Wait for 30 min before reading the plate using a TRF plate reader. Use the 312 parameters listed in Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.. 313 314 315 4. Data analysis 316 317 4.1. Quantification of the concentration of collagen immobilized on the wells 318 319 4.1.1. Obtain the equation of the calibration curve of the A<sub>560</sub> (AU) versus the concentration ( $\mu$ g/mL) of the 11 standard solutions. 320 321 322 4.1.1.1. Use the absorbance readings acquired from the wells containing the collagen 323 standards. 324 325 4.1.1.2. Tabulate the average values from the duplicate wells, and plot the mean absorbance against the known protein (collagen) concentrations (µg/mL) to obtain the 326 equation for the standard curve. 327 328 329 4.1.2. Use the absorbance values to calculate the mass ( $\mu g$ ) and concentration (M) of 330 immobilized collagen. 331 332 Compute the average absorbance values across the three wells that 4.1.2.1. 333 contained immobilized collagen, and record the standard deviation. 334 Use the standard curve equation obtained from the collagen standard curve 335 4.1.2.2. (step 2.2.6) to convert the absorbance measured from the collagen-coated wells into 336 337 concertation. From this, calculate the concentration of collagen that was immobilized within the experimental wells in  $\mu g/mL$ . 338 339 340 4.1.2.3. Convert the concentration calculated in step 4.1.2.2 (µg/mL) first to grams/liter and, based on the molecular weight of the collagen, into molar (M). 341 342 343 4.1.2.4. Finally, calculate the mass of the collagen immobilized in each well by dividing the concentration by the volume of collagen added to the well (100 µL for type I 344 collagen and 70 µL for type III collagen). 345 346 4.2. Calculation of the dissociation constant (K<sub>d</sub>) ( 347



4.4.1.2. Calculate the mean values of triplicate measurements from each compound concentration for the three different plates: the specific binding readings from the coated wells (Plate A), the non-specific binding from the uncoated wells (Plate B) and the total Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP in solution in the uncoated wells (Plate C).

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4.4.1.3. Determine the fluorescence values for the bound compound by subtracting
the fluorescence readings of the uncoated wells (Plate B) from that of the coated wells
(Plate A).

366

367 Equation 1: Determining the bound fluorescence<sup>17</sup>:

Bound fluorescnece = Specific (coated wells) – Unspecific (uncoated well)

368

4.4.1.4. Generate a calibration curve using the readings from the Eu(III)-labeled
 compound in solution (Plate C). Plot the fluorescence readings obtained against the
 concentration of the Eu(III)-labeled compound. Perform a linear regression fit.

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373 4.4.2. Convert the fluorescence readings to concentrations.

4.4.2.1. Convert the readings of the bound fluorescence (step 4.2.3) into
concentration using the standard fluorescence curve from the data generated using the
compound concentrations in solution (step 4.2.1.4).

378

NOTE: When comparing the binding properties of one compound toward different target proteins that immobilize at different concentrations, the latter will need to be considered when calculating the amount of compound bound to the target (i.e., bound compound/protein).

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3844.4.2.2.Divide the concentration of the bound compound by the concentration of the385protein immobilized in the well.

NOTE: For this calculation, use the concentration of immobilized collagen that was calculated after the wells were incubated with PBS for 1 h (so-called PBS mimic experiment; section 2.1 above). This is to account for potential losses of collagen during the incubation step and washing step so that those losses will not contribute to the final fluorescence signal.

396 4.4.3. Obtain the K<sub>d</sub> values.

4.4.3.1. Fit the data acquired in step 4.2.2.3 using two possible binding kinetic
models: one-site binding and one-site binding with a hill slope. The equations for each
model are shown in Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable..

4.4.3.2. Choose the model that provides a non-ambiguous fitting with the highest R-squared value when fitting the data.

405 4.4.3.3. Exclude the outliers (s) for each set of fluorescence readings per 406 concentration per plate.

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411 NOTE: For robust results, perform triplicate measurements within each plate and at least412 three independent experiments with different microplates.

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414 4.4.4. Calculate the fractional occupancy (FO).

415

NOTE: From Equation 2, the concentration of the target is unknown, and, therefore, by
using algebra and the K<sub>d</sub>, from Equation 3, a workable equation for calculating the fractional
occupancy arises in the form of Equation 4.

419

420 Equation 2: Definition of fractional occupancy<sup>17</sup>:

421

Fractional Occupancy = 
$$\frac{()}{(target) + (compound \cdot target)}$$

422

423

424 Equation 3: The dissociation constant,  $K_d$ , which is the concentration at which the 425 compound occupies 50% of the target at equilibrium<sup>17</sup>:

426

$$\frac{(compound) \cdot (target)}{compound \cdot target} = \frac{Koff}{Kon} = Kd$$

427

428 Equation 4: Rearranged equation to calculate the FO equation<sup>17</sup>:

Fractional Occupancy =  $\frac{(compound)}{(compound) + Kd}$ 

4.4.4.1. Calculate the FO using the independent K<sub>d</sub> values obtained for each individual
plate. Plot the results, mean, and standard deviations of the FO against the concentration of
the compound.

434

435 4.4.4.2. Report the FO with values ranging from 0 to 1 or as a percentage with values436 ranging from 0%–100%.

437

#### 438 **REPRESENTATIVE RESULTS:**

#### 439 Assessing the stability and concentration of type I and type III collagen immobilized in 440 gels/films

The quantification of the collagen concentration immobilized per well was carried out using 441 three different conditions: a) in wells without washing with PBS after immobilizing the 442 443 proteins (no wash); b) in wells with a wash step (twice with PBS) after immobilization to 444 remove any uncoated protein; c) in wells after incubation with PBS for 1 h (PBS mimic 445 experiment). The PBS incubation mimicking step was performed to understand the stability 446 of the collagen gel/film following incubation with a solution containing the candidate compound during the actual binding assay. Quantifying how much collagen is immobilized 447 448 per well is crucial for accurately calculating and comparing the bound fraction and dissociation constant (K<sub>d</sub>) of a compound toward different targets, especially when those 449 targets have different coating efficiencies. Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable. shows a 450 representative stability assay for type III collagen, from which it is evident that the amount 451 of collagen that remained immobilized on the wells decreased when washing and/or 452 453 incubation steps were included. The results demonstrate that a greater loss of collagen from 454 the gel/film occurs during the washing step and less loss occurs during the incubation step. 455 However, washing is a crucial step during an *in vitro* binding assay to ensure that the 456 unbound compound is removed. For this reason, it is important that the amount of collagen 457 that remains coated within the well, and not the amount of collagen initially immobilized, is calculated and used for the normalization of the results of the in vitro binding assay. The 458 459 optimized conditions that resulted in the reproducible immobilization of collagen and the corresponding amount of collagen that was immobilized after following the washing and 460 incubation steps are reported in Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.. 461

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# In vitro Eu(III) TRF binding assay to characterize the binding of Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP toward type I and type III collagen

A representative analysis and results obtained from an *in vitro* Eu(III) TRF experiment to 465 466 investigate the affinity of the Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP compound toward collagen type I and type III are shown in Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.. The bound fluorescence 467 readings and corresponding K<sub>d</sub> values of the candidate collagen binding compound are 468 shown in Figure 8A. The results show that the candidate compound bound non-specifically 469 to type I collagen (as the curve does not reach saturation), and, therefore, no K<sub>d</sub> value was 470 reported. In contrast, the candidate compound was shown to bind to type III collagen with a 471  $K_d$  value of 4.2  $\mu$ M ± 0.7  $\mu$ M. As the coating efficiencies of type I and III collagen are different 472 473 (as shown in **Table 3**), a normalization step was implemented to account for the amount of

429

immobilized collagen per well. To achieve that, the standard curve obtained from the total 474 compound in solution (Figure 8B) was used to convert the bound fluorescence readings into 475 concentration. These values were then normalized by dividing the bound fluorescence 476 477 readings by the concentration of collagen coated onto the wells to obtain the plot shown in Figure 8C, in which the bound protein data for type I and III collagen could be presented on 478 the same plot. It must be noted that although the K<sub>d</sub> values were not altered by the 479 normalization, in this particular example, the results could be plotted and directly compared 480 using the same graph. The fractional occupancy results, shown in Figure 8D, demonstrated 481 that 71% of the collagen was occupied by the compound at the highest concentration of 10 482 483 μМ.

- 484
- 485 FIGURE AND TABLE LEGENDS:
- 486



- 487 Figure 1: Overview of the methodology used to study compound–protein binding
- 488 **interactions using Eu(III) TRF.** Created with BioRender.com.



Figure 2: Workflow to immobilize type I collagen. Created with BioRender.com.

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495 Figure 3: Workflow to immobilize type III collagen. Created with BioRender.com.496



- 498 Figure 4: Chemical structure of the Eu(III)-DOTA-monoamide derivative carrying a
- 499 collagen-binding peptide (CBP) used for the *in vitro* binding studies.



- 501
- 502 Figure 5: Overview of the data analysis pipeline to calculate the dissociation constant
- 503 **following the** *in vitro* **binding assay.** Created with BioRender.com.
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Figure 6: Fitting models used in the binding assays to obtain the K<sub>d</sub> Values. Created with
 BioRender.com.

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**Figure 7: Amount of immobilized type III collagen in three experimental conditions.** No wash = measuring the immobilized collagen directly after incubation; wash = washing the plate twice with 100  $\mu$ L of PBS; 1 h PBS mimic & wash = incubation for 1 h with PBS followed by two rounds of washes with PBS to study the stability of the film before using the microplates for further *in vitro* binding experiments (n = 4 represented as the mean from duplicate readings and two independent experiments; error bars = standard deviation)

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Figure 8: In vitro binding analysis pipeline. (A,B). In vitro Eu(III) TRF binding curves using 521 Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP and immobilized type I and type III collagen, respectively. (C) Total 522 fluorescence readings of the Eu(III)-DO3AAm-CBP in solution. (D) Calculation of the bound 523 compound/protein by rearranging the equation from Figure 8C to convert the fluorescent 524 values into concentration and then dividing by the concentration of the immobilized protein 525 in the wells. (E) The fractional occupancy analysis of the candidate compound against type 526 III collagen gave an FO of 71 %. The results reported are the mean values of triplicate 527 readings within the same plate and from two independent plate readings (error bars = 528 standard deviation). 529

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# Table 1: Summary of the main differences between the intrinsic characteristics of type I and type III collagen. Adopted from Eryilmaz et al.<sup>13</sup>.

Characteristic	Collagen Type I	Collagen Type III	
Branches	Linear	Globular with branch formation likely to collapse	
Polarity	Non-polar	More polar	
Fibril assembly	Rapid	Slower transition from globular to extended-high nucleation rate but slow assembly	
Fibrils	Straight, lateral growth	Lower prosperity to nucleate straight fibrils-interconnected	

#### **Table 2: Parameters for Eu(III) TRF measurements.**

Excitation Wavelength	340 nm
Emission Wavelength	619 nm
Integration Time	400 µs
Lag Time	400 µs

#### 542 Table 3: Optimized conditions for the immobilization of type I and type III collagen and the 543 guantified amount immobilized.

Protein	Immobilisation protocol	Coating characteristic	Volume added per well	Mass of collagen coated post- PBS mimic (μg)
Collagen Type I	37°tissue culture incubator overnight	Gel	100µl	240
Collagen Type III	37° for 2hrs; laminar flow under the hood overnight	Clear film	70µl	70

#### 548 Supplemental File 1: Preparation of the acidic solution (AS) and buffering solution (BS) and 549 calibration of the volume.

### **DISCUSSION:**

This work presents a reproducible method for immobilizing type I and type III collagen. It also demonstrates a protocol for acquiring, analyzing, and interpreting in vitro Eu(III) TRF binding data to characterize the binding properties of a candidate ligand toward type I and III collagen. The protocols for immobilizing type I and type III collagen presented here were developed and optimized considering previously published work on type I and type III collagen fibrillogenesis in vitro<sup>13,16</sup>. Specifically, the reproducible coating of type I and III collagen was achieved by optimizing critical conditions, including the type of microplates, the pH, the temperature, and the ionic concentration of the buffer. Given that collagens self-assemble with increasing pH values and temperature, the neutralization and plating

steps for immobilizing collagen must be completed on ice and in the cold room. This ensures 561 that the nucleation rate of collagen, the first step of fibrillogenesis, does not start before the 562 collagen comes into contact with the well but rather occurs within the well after the 563 temperature is increased during the incubation step. By quantifying the amount of protein 564 in each well, it was found that type I collagen coated reproducibly and stably using non-565 binding specific microplates that were coated with a non-ionic hydrophilic surface. In 566 contrast, type III collagen, showed reproducible and stable coating using tissue culture 567 polystyrene- microplates that were exposed to plasma gas, making the microplate more 568 hydrophilic. Immobilization protocols for type III collagen are less explored compared with 569 those available for type I collagen, and, therefore, this protocol is unique. Although the 570 immobilization protocols used for type I and type III collagen follow similar steps, there are 571 crucial differences in the duration and temperature of the incubation due to the different 572 573 intrinsic characteristics of the two collagen types. It is known that type III collagen has a 574 faster nucleation rate and a slower growth rate than type I collagen, and these differences were considered when establishing this protocol (**Table 1**)<sup>13</sup>. For this reason, type III collagen 575 requires incubation at 37 °C for only 2 h, whereas type I collagen is incubated for 18–20 h. 576

578 The coating efficiency—how much of each collagen was coated onto the wells—was also studied, and the stability of the coating under different protocols, especially after washing 579 and after incubating with PBS for 1 h, was investigated. The stability of the coated protein is 580 crucial for the reproducible screening of the binding properties of a compound toward the 581 582 target and the accurate calculation of the K<sub>d</sub> and FO values. This is a step that is rarely performed, and binding protocols typically only quantify the concentration of the 583 immobilized protein at the start of the experiment (after immobilization but prior to the 584 incubation)<sup>16</sup>. However, because both the coating efficiency and stability of the coated 585 protein may vary between different proteins, it is important to determine how much of the 586 587 initial protein remains stably coated within the well at the end of the binding experiment and, therefore, contributes toward the final measurement. Knowing that there is a 588 reproducible amount of protein coated on the plates is important when studying the 589 interactions of these proteins with binding molecules, as this contributes directly to the 590 fluorescence reading from the Eu(III)-labeled compound. Normalizing the bound 591 fluorescence measurements with the amount of protein immobilized in the well (bound 592 protein) does not affect the K<sub>d</sub> or FO per se. However, such normalization leads to the 593 594 rescaling of the data plotted on the y-axis of the binding curve, enabling the direct 595 comparison of the binding profile of the same compound toward different targets with 596 different immobilization efficiencies.

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In the analysis, it is also important to account for the non-specific binding of the compound to the experimental matrix (i.e., the plastic plate) rather than assuming that the readings acquired from the coated wells solely represent compound bound to collagen. This was accounted for by subtracting the non-specific binding of the compound to the plate (uncoated wells) from the specific reading, represented as "bound fluorescence" (collagencoated wells), under the same TRF measurement conditions.

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Eu(III) TRF-based methods have been widely used for *in vitro* binding studies<sup>23-25</sup>. It is a flexible assay that can be used in multiple applications, such as immune assays, cell cytotoxicity studies, enzyme assays, and binding studies, as demonstrated here and in

previous work<sup>23,26</sup>. It is also highly sensitive and takes advantage of time-resolved 608 fluorescence properties to eliminate any non-specific background fluorescence signals that 609 may be observed in conventional direct readings<sup>21</sup>. In standard DELFIA applications, users 610 are able to use the standard enhancement solution to efficiently extract Eu(III) from its 611 complexes. However, the decomplexation of Eu(III) from Eu(III)-DO3AAm-like complexes is 612 difficult because of the very high kinetic inertness of such complexes, which means that 613 decomplexation will be far from being complete and reproducible. A protocol to achieve 614 Eu(III) decomplexation from such complexes has been proposed by De Silva et al.<sup>21</sup>. Such a 615 protocol involves the incubation of the Eu(III)-DO3AAm complex with a very acidic solution 616 617 (AS, 2 M HCl) for 2 h, followed by the addition of a neutralizing solution (NS, 2 M NaOH) to bring the pH back to neutrality. The enhancement solution is then added to activate the 618 Eu(III) and to adjust the pH to be in the optimal range (3.0–3.5) for TRF readings. However, it 619 620 was found that small volume inaccuracies in the amounts of acid and neutralizing solutions 621 added to microwells could lead to significant fluctuations in the final pH, which could affect 622 the intensity of the Eu(III) TRF signal. Thus, the protocol was modified by adding a strong 623 glycine buffer to the NaOH solution to obtain the buffering solution (2 M NaOH and 2 M glycine). After treatment with the acid solution to extract Eu(III), the pH is adjusted directly 624 to 3.2 in a very consistent and reproducible manner by the addition of a calibrated amount 625 626 of the buffering solution. Finally, the enhancement solution can be added for Eu(III) recoordination and self-association into TRF active micelles. 627

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629 A limitation of the Eu(III) TRF assay is that the maximum concentration of the Eu(III)-labeled compound that can be used in the assay is  $10-15 \mu M$  because, at higher concentrations, the 630 extraction of Eu(III) and the formation of micelles are no longer linear. Another method that 631 632 has been used to measure K<sub>d</sub> values is by using compounds labeled with other lanthanides, 633 such as Gd(III). In this approach, the Gd(III) concentration is measured in the supernatant 634 collected after the incubation of the Gd(III)-labeled compound with the target using ICP-MS. The ICP-MS of the supernatant collected after the incubation of the compound provides an 635 indirect measurement of the bound fraction remaining in the well by subtracting the 636 amount of Gd(III) in the supernatant from the "total gadolinium" concentration that was 637 initially added in the well. Despite the indirect measurement of the "bound fraction", this 638 approach yields comparable binding affinities to those measured with high-performance 639 liquid chromatography (HPLC)<sup>16</sup>. The ICP-MS method is useful in cases where the K<sub>d</sub> may be 640 high, meaning concentrations of the compound higher than the 10–15  $\mu$ M limit of the 641 DELFIA assay are required in order to reach the plateau (saturation) of the binding curve 642 643 and, thus, accurately calculate the K<sub>d</sub>. Another technique to study the interactions between molecules is SPR<sup>27</sup>. This is an optical technique based on the immobilization of a target 644 protein on a gold film and the analysis of the binding of another protein/molecule in a 645 646 mobile state. The advantage of SPR is that it measures the interactions directly with no need for any fluorophore or lanthanide complexation to measure the binding response. However, 647 the limitations of this technique include the complexity of optimizing the immobilization 648 process (which can compromise the binding of the epitope), the difficulty of determining 649 non-specific binding, and the cost<sup>28</sup>. 650

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This study presents an optimized protocol that enables the reproducible immobilization of type I and type III collagen, a detailed methodology for performing Eu(III) TRF assays to 654 study compound–collagen interactions, and a clear workflow for analyzing and interpreting 655 the results.

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### 657 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS:**

We are grateful to the following funders for supporting this work: (1) the UK Medical Research Council (MR/N013700/1) and King's College London member of the MRC Doctoral Training Partnership in Biomedical Sciences; (2) BHF program grant RG/20/1/34802; (3) BHF Project grant PG/2019/34897; (4) King's BHF Centre for Research Excellence grant RE/18/2/34213; (5) the ANID Millennium Science Initiative Program – ICN2021\_004; and (6) ANID Basal grant FB210024.

- 664 665 **DISCLOSURES:**
- 666 The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.
- 667

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